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Visible-light-assisted peroxymonosulfate activation and mechanism for the degradation of pharmaceuticals over pyridyl-functionalized graphitic carbon nitride coordinated with iron phthalocyanine



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ABSTRACT

Recently, peroxymonosulfate (PMS)-based advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) have received increasing attention because of their capability and adaptability in decontamination. The couple of solar light and PMS activation is an environmentally friendly and efficient strategy for environmental remediation. Herein, the iron hexadecachlorophthalocyanine (FePcCl₁₆) was used to coordinate with graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), which was functionalized by pyridine-based ligand isonicotinic acid (INA) to prepare a distinctive catalyst, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆. The experimental results revealed that g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ can activate PMS efficiently for the elimination of carbamazepine (CBZ) under visible light irradiation over a wide pH range. Upon irradiation with visible light, CBZ was destroyed by the solider g-C₃N₄ with generated sulfate (SO₄•⁻) and hydroxyl (•OH) radicals, on the other hand, high-valent iron (Fe (IV)=O) species accompanied by SO₄•⁻ and •OH radicals were produced by excited-state FePcCl₁₆ (*FePcCl₁₆) during oxidation, which is different from a traditional PMS activation system. The axial pyridine-based ligand was protected under the FePcCl₁₆ macrocyclic structure shield. Noteworthy, in the absence of visible light, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ showed a higher catalytic performance than pure g-C₃N₄, FePcCl₁₆ and a mechanical mixture of the two. This study allows for the construction of an effective and environmental catalytic system, which can be applied to purify water that contains refractory pollutants.

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1. Introduction

The occurrence of pharmaceutically active compounds (PhACs) in environments has received increasing attention because of their potential threat to human health and aquatic ecosystems [1,2]. As emerging persistent contaminants, PhACs are believed to be toxic to living organisms even though the concentration is very low [3]. Therefore, it is necessary to develop efficient technologies to eliminate PhACs. Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) that use reactive species have been applied extensively in rapid degradation and complete mineralization of the recalcitrant organic pollutants [4–6]. Among various AOPs, peroxymonosulfate (PMS, 2KHSO₅·KHSO₄·K₂SO₄, oxone), as a favorable alternative to hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), has received attention because of its ability to generate both hydroxyl ($^{\bullet}$ OH) and sulfate (SO₄ $^{\bullet}$) radicals, as well as its improved flexibility over a broad pH range [7,8]. Numerous methods for PMS activation have been proposed including transi-

tion metals [9–12], ultraviolet (UV) [13], ultrasound [14], carbon catalysts [15,16] and so on. The most common catalysts are transition metals, with Co²⁺/PMS system gives the best results of SO₄•–generation. However, the application of Co²⁺ is limited because of its potential carcinogenic effects [17].

In contrast with cobalt, iron is more environmentally friendly, which makes it a potentially fascinating catalyst. Recently, some investigations have reported the use of Fe²⁺ in PMS activation to form active radical species [18,19]. However, the Fe²⁺/PMS system can only be operated under acidic conditions because of the hydrolysis and precipitation of Fe²⁺ [20], and the transformation rate from Fe³⁺ to Fe²⁺ is slow [21,22]. Iron phthalocyanine (FePc) is a potential material that could overcome these drawbacks. FePc as an efficient and stable Fenton-like catalyst could improve the pH tolerance for a higher catalytic performance [23]. It may be also applicable to PMS-related conditions. Second, the unique electron-rich characteristic of FePc could accelerate the transformation rate from Fe³⁺ to Fe²⁺ [24]. Simultaneously, FePc is a member of the metallophthalocyanines (MPcs) family, which is well-known for an intrinsic broad spectral response in the red/near-infrared (IR) and visiblelight region, and has been applied widely in the photocatalytic field

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[25–27]. Accompanied by light-harvesting, MPcs can be excited to their excited state with unique photochemical and photophysical behaviors, many studies related to excited-state MPcs have been reported [28–30]. So far, numerous derivatives of FePc have been synthesized with various substituent groups [24,31–33]. Among them, iron hexadecachlorophthalocyanine (FePcCl₁₆) is considered more stable because the strong electron-withdrawing chlorinated substituents at the periphery can protect its macrocyclic structure. However, the use of FePcCl₁₆ is limited because of its aggregation, which can be overcome by introducing appropriate support materials.

In recent years, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) as a visiblelight photocatalyst has been used widely because of its unique planar structure, photocatalysis, low cost, and thermal stability [34–37]. More recently, $g-C_3N_4$ has been found to be a feasible candidate for the catalytic activation of PMS towards the degradation of organic contaminants [38–40]. However, the rapid charge recombination, low surface and poor absorption of visible light have restricted its application. Many strategies have been explored to enhance its photocatalytic activity, such as heteroatom doping [41,42], heterojunctions construction [43,44] and dye sensitizing [45]. We noted that the immobilization of MPcs onto g-C₃N₄ could extend the spectral response region of g-C₃N₄, improve the MPcs dispersion and provide them with specific photoelectronic properties [25,46,47]. In our previous study, we prepared g-C₃N₄/ZnTcPc catalyst using g-C₃N₄ coupled with zinc tetracarboxyphthalocyanine (ZnTcPc), and the product showed a higher photocatalytic activity [48]. But the preparation method for this catalyst is only suitable for MPcs with carboxyl, which are difficult to obtain. Inspired by MPcs can be linked covalently or noncovalently to other ligands, such as porphyrin, pyridine, and indole, which can also be fixed to g-C₃N₄. So, an appropriate ligand was proposed as a "bridge" to connect various MPcs and g-C₃N₄.

In this work, we used pyridine-based ligand isonicotinic acid (INA) to act as a "bridge", and designed a facile approach to synthesize a distinctive catalyst, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆, using FePcCl₁₆ that is axially coordinated with INA-modified g-C₃N₄. Carbamazepine (CBZ), is one of the most frequently detected PhACs in the aquatic environment, and was selected as probe compound to evaluate the catalytic performance of the as-prepared catalysts. The constructed g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/visible light system shows strong catalytic activity for CBZ decomposition, which is attributed to the efficient generation of Fe (IV)=O, SO₄•- and •OH. And visiblelight-induced *FePcCl₁₆ was identified as the major factor that is responsible for the formation of Fe (IV)=O species, which could not be detected in the dark. A possible pathway for the degradation of CBZ was proposed using high-definition mass spectrometry (HDMS) coupled with gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC-MS).

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials and reagents

CBZ, benzotriazol-1-yl-oxytripyrrolidinophosphonium hexafluorophosphate (PyBOP), PMS, diisopropylethylamine (DIEA) and dimethyl sulfone (DMSO $_2$) were from Aladdin Chemical Co. Ltd. Tetrahydrifuran (THF) and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) were from the Tianjin Wing Tai Chemical Co. Ltd. 5, 5-Dimethyl-pyrroline Noxide (DMPO) was obtained from the Tokyo Chemical Industry Co. Ltd. Methanol and acetonitrile (Merck, Germany) for UPLC were of chromatographic grade. All chemicals were of analytical grade and were used as received without further purification.

2.2. Catalyst preparation

g-C₃N₄ synthesis was according to Chen et al. [49]. FePcCl₁₆ was synthesized according to the literature [50]. The preparation of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ is as shown in Scheme 1. An environmental liquid exfoliation route was conducted by exfoliating g-C₃N₄ into ultrathin nanosheets in ultrapure water for 5 d, before it was freezedried for further use [51]. INA, PyBOP and DIEA were dissolved in 200 mL dry DMF, and ultrasonicated for 1.5 h. The ultrasonicated g-C₃N₄ was dispersed in 100 mL dry DMF and added drop-wise to the above solution at 100 mL/h. After reacting for 6 h at 60 °C, the solution was centrifuged, washed with DMF and ultrapure water, and freeze-dried to obtain g-C₃N₄-INA powder. Finally, g-C₃N₄-INA and FePcCl₁₆ were added to 200 mL THF in the dark for 6 h. After reaction, the solution was centrifuged, and washed with THF and ultrapure water. Then g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ powder was obtained after the sample was freeze-dried. A series of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ catalysts with diverse loading of FePcCl₁₆ were prepared. From the X-ray fluorescence (XRF) test, the asprepared catalysts were defined as g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (0.67%), g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (1.70%) and g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (3.58%). The mechanical mixture of g-C₃N₄ and FePcCl₁₆ was termed g- C_3N_4 /FePcCl₁₆ (1.70% FePcCl₁₆ in the mixture).

2.3. Photocatalytic experiments

To evaluate the photocatalytic activity of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆, a Q-Sun Xe-1 test chamber (USA) (Fig. S1) served as the light source, and a UV cutoff filter (Shanghai Seagull Colored Optical Glass Co., Ltd.) was used to filter the UV light (λ < 420 nm) to ensure illumination by visible light only. CBZ was selected as a probe compound. The experiment was conducted in a 40 mL glass beaker at room temperature. Before irradiation, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (0.1 g/L) was dispersed in CBZ aqueous solution (25 μ M) and ultrasonicated for 2 min. PMS, was added as an oxidant. The CBZ concentration was detected by UPLC equipped with the Acquity BEH C18 column (1.7 um, 2.1 \times 50 mm, Waters), and a mixture of acetonitrile and water (20:80, v/v) was used as the mobile phase with a flow rate of 0.35 mL/min for the UPLC experiments.

2.4. Analytical methods

The catalyst chemical structures were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). UV-vis spectra and UV-vis diffuse reflectance absorption spectra (DRS) were obtained to explore the optical absorption performance of the samples. Photoluminescence (PL) spectra and the transient photocurrent response were used to investigate the photoelectrochemical properties of the catalysts. Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) signals of radicals trapped by DMPO were detected in a Bruker A300 spectrometer at ambient temperature. To detect whether high-valent iron (Fe (IV) = 0) species were generated, designed measurements were carried out by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC-MS, GC: Agilent 6890 N equipped with an OV1701 capillary column $30 \text{ m} \times 0.25 \text{ mm} \times 0.25 \text{ um}$; MS: Agilent 5973i) and UPLC/Synapt G2-S HDMS (Waters Q-TOF, USA) in positive mode. The degradation intermediates of CBZ in the g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/visible light system were identified by UPLC Synapt G2-S HDMS (Waters, USA). The procedures and corresponding parameters are described in the supplementary material.

Scheme 1. Synthesis of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization

Fig. 1a shows the UV-vis absorption spectra of FePcCl₁₆ and the simple mixture of FePcCl₁₆ and INA in THF solution. FePcCl₁₆ solution exhibited an outstanding visible/near-IR responsive property with an intense absorption band centered at 683 nm, which favored visible-light-assisted photocatalytic contaminant decomposition. In contrast, the maximum absorption of the mixture of FePcCl₁₆ and INA was blue-shifted by \sim 4 nm, which may have resulted from the coordination interaction between INA and FePcCl₁₆. DRS spectra of the pure g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄-INA and g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ are shown in Fig. 1b. g-C₃N₄ absorption limited visible light below 450 nm because of its relatively large bandgap (2.7 eV) [52], whereas g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ exhibited a much broader absorption band over the entire visible light region. On the basis of the above results, we infer that the combination of g-C₃N₄-INA and FePcCl₁₆ induces a synergetic effect and improves the photocatalytic activity of g-C₃N₄ and FePcCl₁₆.

A HDMS technique was used to confirm that the INA can coordinate with FePcCl $_{16}$. Fig. 2a shows the chemical molecular structure of INA-FePcCl $_{16}$, which was formed by INA and FePcCl $_{16}$ via axial coordination. Fig. 2b shows the theoretical mass spectrum of INA-FePcCl $_{16}$, which was obtained by inputting its molecular formula ($C_{38}H_5N_9O_2Cl_{16}Fe$) into Micromass MassLynx software. Fig. 2c shows the actual mass spectrum for a simple mixture of INA and FePcCl $_{16}$ dispersed in THF solution. The fragmentation peaks of the former well coincide with the peaks of the latter, which indicates that the INA could coordinate with the FePcCl $_{16}$.

We used XPS spectra to identify the chemical composition and bonding of the g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ and FePcCl₁₆. As shown in Fig. 3, the C1s peaks at 284.6 eV and 286.3 eV correspond to sp² C-C bonds and C-NH₂ species, respectively [53]. The C 1s peaks at 288.2-288.5 eV are ascribed to the C-N-C coordination and sp²-hybridized carbon of the N—C=N [54]. For FePcCl₁₆, the C 1s peak at 285.9 eV is likely to be attributed to C-Cl species. We could observe that the N-C=N peak of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ decreased compared with the C-C peak. This may resulted from the amidation reaction between g-C₃N₄ and INA, which resulted in a decrease of the amount of N—C=N bonds. The N 1s spectra are shown in Fig. S2. The strongest peak at 398.6 eV can be explained by the sp²hybridized nitrogen in triazine rings (C—N=C) [55,56]. Compared with g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ showed a distinct increase at peak 401.0 eV, which is regarded as the nitrogen involved in amide group (-NH-CO-) that is formed by the amino (-NH₂) of g-C₃N₄ and the carboxyl (-COOH) of INA. Therefore, we have proven the specific synthesis process of $g\text{-}C_3N_4\text{-}INA\text{-}FePcCl}_{16}$, which is based on axial coordination of INA-functionalized g-C₃N₄ and FePcCl₁₆.

XRD patterns of the different samples are given in Fig. 4. Two sharp diffraction peaks at 13.1° and 27.5° were observed in the XRD patterns for pure $g\text{-}C_3N_4$, $g\text{-}C_3N_4\text{-}INA$ and $g\text{-}C_3N_4\text{-}INA\text{-}FePcCl}_{16}$. The stronger peak at 27.5° can be indexed as (002) diffraction for graphitic-like structure. Another peak at 13.1° that corresponds to tristriazine units is ascribed to the (100) inplanar in JCPDS 87-1526 with an interplanar distance of 0.682 nm [57]. The results illustrate that g-C_3N_4-INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ retained the intrinsic structure of g-C $_3N_4$. Moreover, no diffraction peaks of the FePcCl $_{16}$ crystal appeared in the XRD pattern of g-C $_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$, which indicates the low amount and high dispersity of FePcCl $_{16}$ on g-C $_3N_4$ surfaces. In

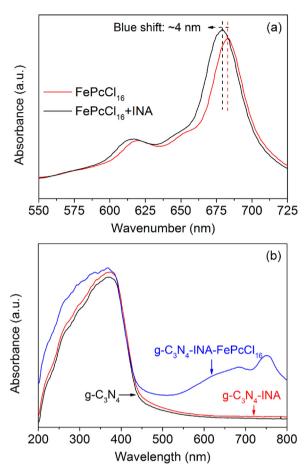


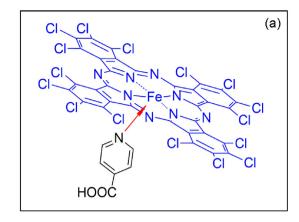
Fig. 1. (a) UV-vis spectra of FePcCl₁₆, INA+FePcCl₁₆ solution; (b) UV-vis diffuse reflectance absorption spectra of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄-INA and g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆.

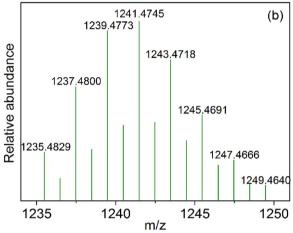
addition, the as-prepared samples were characterized by FT-IR (see Supplementary material for details).

3.2. Photocatalytic activity

CBZ was selected as the target contaminant to determine the catalytic performance of different catalysts. The impact of FePcCl₁₆ loading amount in g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ on the catalytic activity was studied. Fig. 5a shows that, compared with pure g-C₃N₄, the elimination rate of CBZ was higher using g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ with diverse loading amounts of FePcCl₁₆ as catalysts. When the actual ratio of FePcCl₁₆ reached 1.70%, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ exhibited the highest photocatalytic activity. The removal rate of CBZ over g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (3.58%) was lower than g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (1.70%), possibly because the much amount of FePcCl₁₆ in g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ could accelerate the PMS decomposition, and cause quenching after 20 min. As shown in Fig. 5b, PMS was added again after 40 min, which makes the concentration of PMS the same as the initial concentration, and the remaining CBZ was removed completely. This result suggests that the poor photocatalytic activity of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (3.58%) is attributed to a lack of PMS. Therefore, in the ensuing studies, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (1.70%) was selected to explore the catalytic activity of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆.

As shown in Fig. 6a, nearly 55% CBZ was degraded over g- C_3N_4 or g- C_3N_4 /FePcCl₁₆ in the presence of PMS under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm) within 40 min. In the presence of g- C_3N_4 -INA-FePcCl₁₆, the removal rate of CBZ reached \sim 94%, which implies that g- C_3N_4 -INA-FePcCl₁₆ possesses a higher catalytic oxidation capacity. While FePcCl₁₆ shows a poor photocatalytic activity for CBZ degradation, which may be because of the molecular aggrega-





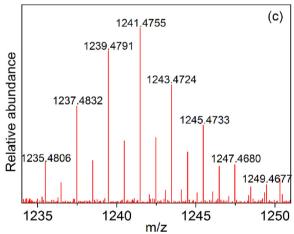


Fig. 2. (a) Molecular structure of INA-FePcCl₁₆; (b) Theoretical mass spectrum of INA-FePcCl₁₆; (c) The actual mass spectrum of INA and FePcCl₁₆ in THF solution.

tion of FePcCl $_{16}$. The catalytic activity of different catalysts without visible light irradiation was also explored (Fig. 6b). Even though PMS was used, almost no degradation of CBZ occurred when FePcCl $_{16}$, g-C $_3$ N $_4$ or g-C $_3$ N $_4$ /FePcCl $_{16}$ was present. However, when g-C $_3$ N $_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ was present, nearly 49% CBZ was removed, which was greater than that of g-C $_3$ N $_4$ /FePcCl $_{16}$. Based on these results, g-C $_3$ N $_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ is considered an efficient activator for PMS, and the enhanced catalytic activity did not result from the sensitization effect, but from the synergistic effect between g-C $_3$ N $_4$ and FePcCl $_{16}$.

For the decomposition of organic contaminants in aqueous solution, the pH value is a nonnegligible factor. Efficient catalytic activity commonly occurs within an acidic pH range. Here,

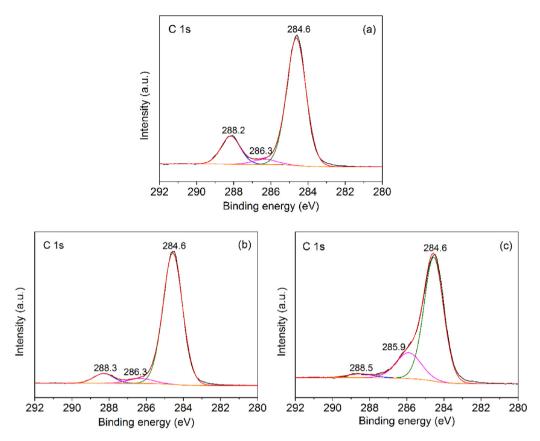


Fig. 3. Curve fit of the C 1s peak of (a) g-C₃N₄, (b) g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆, (c) FePcCl₁₆.

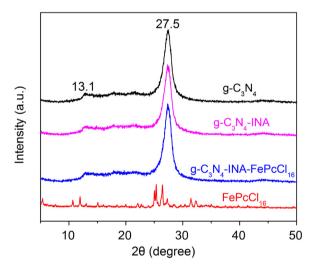


Fig. 4. XRD pattern of g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄-INA, g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ and FePcCl₁₆.

we investigated the photocatalytic oxidation of CBZ with PMS, $g-C_3N_4/PMS$ and $g-C_3N_4-INA-FePcCl_{16}/PMS$ under visible light irradiation under diverse pH conditions. Fig. 7 shows that in the PMS/visible light system, only a small removal of CBZ was observed despite the pH range. The $g-C_3N_4/PMS/v$ isible light system showed a good photocatalytic activity under acidic conditions (pH 5), but possessed a relatively weak oxidizing capacity at pH 9. In the $g-C_3N_4-INA-FePcCl_{16}/PMS/v$ isible light system, the removal rate of CBZ has been maintained around 94% within 40 min at pH 5 and pH 7, and more than 80% at pH 9. The results indicate that $g-C_3N_4-INA-FePcCl_{16}$ exhibited stronger photocatalytic ability over a broader pH range than $g-C_3N_4$. More importantly, it revealed that the introduc-

tion of FePcCl $_{16}$ may lead to a distinctive photocatalytic mechanism that differs from g-C $_3$ N $_4$. The result is very important to remediate practical wastewater, because wastewater that contains PhACs and other contaminants is typically neutral or alkaline.

The effect of initial PMS concentration was investigated (Fig. S4). With an increase in PMS concentration, the CBZ degradation rate improved gradually. The influence of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ dosage was also studied (Fig. S5). The removal rate of CBZ was enhanced with increased dosage. However, when the dosage of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ reached 0.2 g/L, the CBZ degradation was nearly quenched after 20 min, which may have resulted from the rapid decomposition of PMS. This phenomenon is similar to that of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ (3.58%). Fig. S6 shows the removal rate of CBZ over g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ in the presence of PMS under visible or solar light. The removal of CBZ under solar light only accelerated a little compared with that under visible light irradiation. This indicates that the visible light provides a major contribution to the oxidation process. The degradation of other typical PhACs and organic contaminants is listed in Table S1.

Given that catalyst reusability is a primary concern in practical applications, recycling experiments were conducted with $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS system that was exposed to visible radiation. Fig. S7 shows that, the removal rate of CBZ was as high as 90% over ten reaction cycles, which indicates that $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl₁₆ presented an excellent reusability. In addition, the fresh and used $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl₁₆ samples were characterized by XPS to further examine the $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl₁₆ stability (Fig. S8). The Cl 2p peaks of the used sample show no significant differences from the fresh sample. The results revealed that the $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/visible light system is a stable and environmentally friendly catalytic oxidation process, and could be used widely.

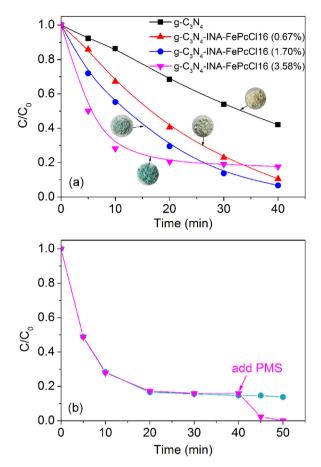


Fig. 5. (a) Photocatalytic degradation of CBZ over $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ with different loading amount in the presence of PMS under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420\,\text{nm}$); (b) Photocatalytic degradation of CBZ over $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ (3.58%) in the presence of PMS and adding PMS extra under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420\,\text{nm}$). [CBZ] = 25 μM, [$g-C_3N_4$] = 0.1 g/L, [$g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ (0.67%), (1.70%), (3.58%)] = 0.1 g/L, [PMS] = 0.18 mM, pH 7.

3.3. Mechanism and pathway

3.3.1. Mechanism

PL is regarded as a potential technology to demonstrate the electron-migration behavior [58,59]. Fig. 8a shows PL spectra of g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ under the excitation wavelength of 350 nm. Both g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ exhibited a wide luminescence peak centered at $\sim\!450\,\text{nm}$. The g-C₃N₄ has a strong PL emission peak, which implies the fast recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs. In contrast with g-C₃N₄, the PL intensity of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ was reduced visibly, which indicates the existence of the enhanced charge transfer capability between FePcCl₁₆ and g-C₃N₄. To further explain the photogenerated electrons migration process, the transient photocurrent response was investigated. Photocurrent-time experiments were carried out through on-off cycles under visible light ($\lambda > 420 \, \text{nm}$) irradiation by a 100W lamp. Fig. 8b shows that g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ exhibited a better response to visible light irradiation than g-C₃N₄, which indicates that the photogenerated electronhole pairs of g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ are separated efficiently and the recombination rate is lower. However, the photocurrent density response of g-C₃N₄/FePcCl₁₆ was slightly weaker than g-C₃N₄. It suggests that the interaction between g-C₃N₄ and FePcCl₁₆ via mechanical mixing method is weak, and the introduction of FePcCl₁₆ may affect the absorbance of g-C₃N₄. Therefore, it is necessary to combine g-C₃N₄ and FePcCl₁₆ via pyridine-based ligand INA.

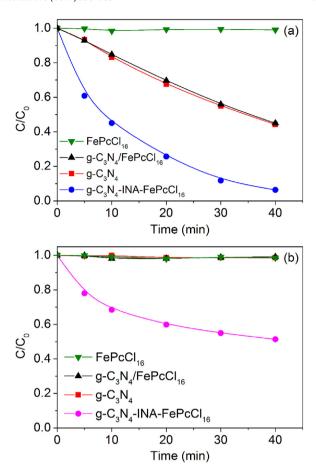


Fig. 6. Degradation of CBZ over FePcCl₁₆, g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄/FePcCl₁₆ and g-C3N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆ in the presence of PMS under different conditions: (a) under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420\,\text{nm}$); (b) in the dark. [CBZ] = 25 μM , [g-C₃N₄] = 0.1 g/L, [g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆] = 0.1 g/L, [PMS] = 0.18 mM, pH 7. (The dosage of FePcCl₁₆ is same with its content in g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆).

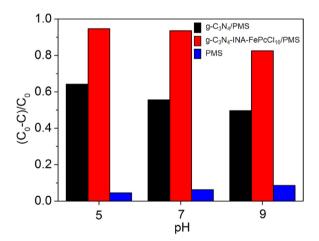


Fig. 7. The removal rate for the photocatalytic degradation of CBZ at different pH values under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm) within 40 min. [CBZ] = 25 μ M, [g-C₃N₄] = 0.1 g/L, [g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl1₆] = 0.1 g/L, [PMS] = 0.18 mM.

In general, the degradation of organic contaminants in the PMS activating process is very likely ascribed to active radicals. Thus, EPR was used to determine the type of active radicals that was involved in the following system where CBZ could be destroyed rapidly: (i) g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/visible light system; (ii) g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/dark system; (iii) g-C₃N₄/PMS/visible light system. DMPO was used as the trapping reagent. Fig. 9

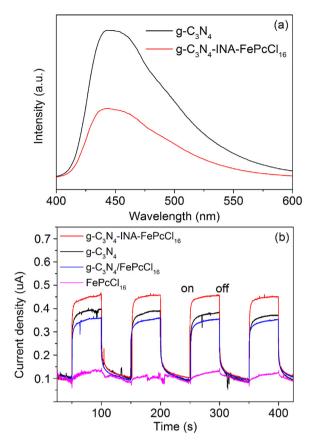


Fig. 8. (a) Photoluminescence (PL) spectra of g- C_3N_4 and g- C_3N_4 -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$. (b) The transient photocurrent density response of g- C_3N_4 , FePcCl $_{16}$, g- C_3N_4 /FePcCl $_{16}$ and g- C_3N_4 -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ photocatalysts electrodes with light on-off cycles under visible light irradiation (λ > 420 nm). [Na $_2$ SO $_4$] = 0.1 M.

shows that the EPR spectra of $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/visible light system and $g-C_3N_4$ /PMS/visible light system showed a four-line and a six-line signal, which were identified as the characteristic

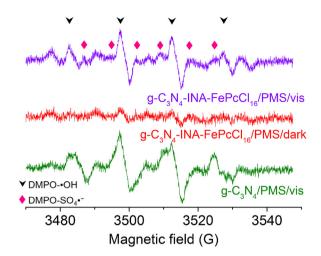


Fig. 9. DMPO spin-trapping EPR spectra in CBZ aqueous solution of different catalytic system. [CBZ] = $25 \,\mu$ M, [g-C₃N₄] = $0.1 \,g$ /L, [g-C₃N₄/FePcCl₁₆] = $0.1 \,g$ /L, [g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆] = $0.1 \,g$ /L, [PMS] = $0.18 \,m$ M, [DMPO] = $50 \,m$ M, pH 7.

peaks of DMPO—*OH and DMPO— SO_4 * adducts. For the g- C_3N_4 -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ /PMS/dark system, the peak of the DMPO—*OH and DMPO— SO_4 * signal is visible, but it was weaker. It is worth noting that for the EPR spectra of the g- C_3N_4 -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ /PMS/dark system, other small peaks are visible, which may form from the oxidation reaction between g- C_3N_4 -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ and DMPO, which resulted in a relatively weaker DMPO—*OH and DMPO— SO_4 * signal. We conclude that *OH and SO_4 * were generated in three different system, which plays a significant role in removing contaminants.

To investigate other potential active species that are involved in the photocatalytic degradation of CBZ, we conducted designed experiments. Fe (IV) = O species can oxidize sulfoxides (e.g., DMSO, methyl phenyl sulfoxide) into corresponding sulfones through a two-electron transfer step (reaction (1)), which differs from the

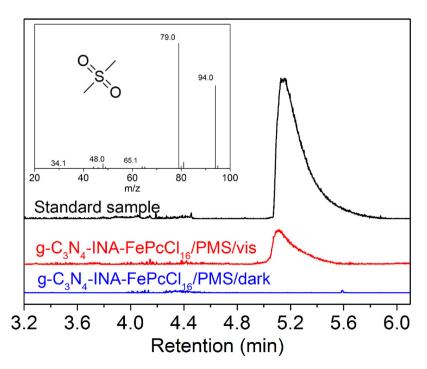


Fig. 10. GC-MS chromatograms of DMSO₂ (1 mM), oxidation products of DMSO catalyzed by different catalytic system. The inset shows the MS spectrum of DMSO₂.

•OH products (reaction (2)), and the $SO_{4^{\bullet}}^{-}$ products are similar to the •OH products [60,61].

$$Fe(IV) = O + (CH_3)_2SO \rightarrow (CH_3)_2SO_2$$
 (1)

$$2^{\circ}OH + 2(CH_3)_2SO + O_2 \rightarrow 2CH_3SO_2H + HCHO + CH_3OH$$
 (2)

As shown in Fig. 10, an obvious peak of the standard sample (DMSO $_2$) emerged at ~ 5.15 min. A peak with similar retention time was detected in the g-C $_3$ N $_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ /PMS/visible light system. Parallel experiment was carried out in the g-C $_3$ N $_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ /PMS/dark system, but no DMSO $_2$ signal was observed. Therefore, we can conclude that active Fe (IV) = O species were generated only in the g-C $_3$ N $_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ /PMS/visible light system.

We summarize that there are ${}^{\bullet}OH$, $SO_4{}^{\bullet-}$ and Fe (IV) = O species in the g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/visible light system. To investigate the contribution of these active species to CBZ degradation, quenching tests were carried out with ethanol (EtOH) and tertbutyl alcohol (TBA) as radical scavengers. EtOH can react with both •OH $(K_{\bullet OH/EtOH}: 9.1 \times 10^6 \,\mathrm{M}^{-1}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1})$ and $SO_4^{\bullet -} (K_{SO4^{\bullet} -/EtOH}:$ $3.5 \times 10^7 \,\mathrm{M}^{-1} \,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$), whereas TBA is used mainly to scavenge •OH $(K_{\bullet OH/TBA}: (3.8-7.6) \times 10^8 \, M^{-1} \, s^{-1})$ instead of $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ ($K_{SO4^{\bullet}-/TBA}: (4.0-9.1) \times 10^5 \, M^{-1} \, s^{-1}$) [62]. We adopted a general pseudo-first order kinetic model $(\ln(C_t/C_0)/k_{obs}t)$ to assess the degradation of CBZ in the presence of different scavengers. As shown in Fig. 11, with an increase in TBA concentration, k_{obs} decreased from 0.067 to 0.038, 0.029 and 0.025 min⁻¹ gradually, which indicates that •OH is an important factor in CBZ degradation. For EtOH, the quenching effect was more obvious with a k_{obs} that decreased from 0.067 to 0.017, 0.013 and 0.009 min⁻¹, respectively. This result suggests that $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ was also generated in the g-C₃N₄/PMS/visible light system. Although 200 mM EtOH was added, the k_{obs} still remained to be 0.009 min⁻¹, which was considered to result from the contribution of Fe (IV) = O species. Therefore, we infer that ${}^{\bullet}$ OH, $SO_4{}^{\bullet}$ and Fe (IV)=O play an equal role in the degradation in the g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/visible light system. Quenching tests were also carried out in the g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/dark system (Fig. S9). When 10 mM TBA and EtOH were added, the CBZ removal

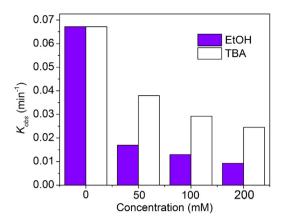


Fig. 11. Effects of different concentration of ethanol (EtOH) and tert-butyl alcohol (TBA) on CBZ removal over $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ in the presence of PMS under visible light irradiation (λ > 420 nm) within 40 min. [CBZ] = 25 μ M, [$g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$] = 0.1 g/L, [PMS] = 0.18 mM, pH 7.

rate dropped from 49% to 45% and 35%, respectively. The result confirms that $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and $^{\bullet}OH$ were involved in the g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/dark system, which was consistent with the EPR analysis.

According to the aforementioned conclusion and related reports, a proposed photocatalytic mechanism for activation of PMS over g- C_3N_4 -INA-FePcCl₁₆ is shown in Fig. 12. The g- C_3N_4 and FePcCl₁₆ can be excited under visible light irradiation, and the photogenerated electrons of g- C_3N_4 itself and those that migrated from the *FePcCl₁₆ can be captured by PMS to produce $SO_4^{\bullet-}$, which can react with OH⁻ to gain ${}^{\bullet}$ OH [63]. Photogenerated holes of g- C_3N_4 could react with PMS to generate $SO_5^{\bullet-}$, which possesses a lower oxidizing capacity [38]. On the other hand, the *Fe^{II} ions of *FePcCl₁₆ coordinated with the O atom of PMS for the cleavage of the O-O bond. Active Fe (IV) = O species was produced via heterolysis of the O-O bond, and simultaneous homolysis occurred to

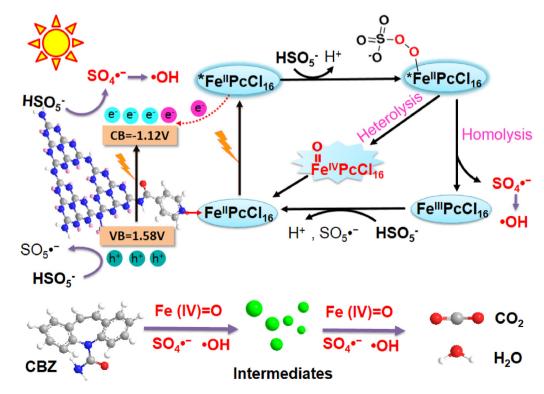
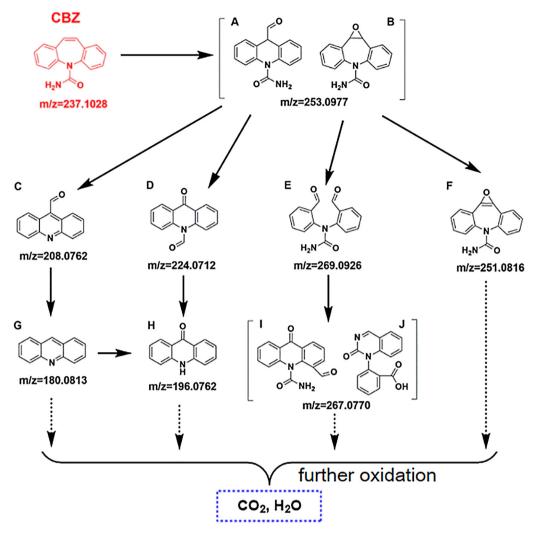


Fig. 12. The proposed mechanism for the CBZ degradation over $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ in the presence of PMS under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm).



Scheme 2. Possible pathway for the photocatalytic degradation of CBZ over $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl₁₆ in the presence of PMS under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm).

generate $SO_4 \bullet^-$ and $\bullet OH$. Active species of Fe(IV) = O, $SO_4 \bullet^-$ and $\bullet OH$ oxidize CBZ in the $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ /PMS/visible light system. Moreover, the mechanism for the $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ /PMS/dark system was also proposed (Fig. S10). Without visible light irradiation, only FePcCl $_{16}$ could contribute to the removal of CBZ, $SO_4 \bullet^-$ and $\bullet OH$ radicals were generated only through O-O bond homolysis, whereas heterolysis hardly occurred because no Fe (IV) = O species were detected in the dark condition.

3.3.2. CBZ degradation pathway

In the process of identifying the degradation pathway of CBZ, ten intermediates (A–J) were detected by HDMS in positive ion mode. Details of different intermediates are listed in Table S2. We proposed a possible degradation pathway of CBZ (Scheme 2). Compounds A and B with the same formula $C_{15}H_{13}N_2O_2$, are attributed to the initial products of CBZ, which contain one more oxygen atom than the CBZ molecule. Compound A, followed by the loss of —CONH2 group, lead to the formation of C. Compound D may form by B via a facile ring contraction [64], and compounds E and F were other further oxidation products of compounds A or B owing to the attack of ${}^{\bullet}OH$, $SO_4{}^{\bullet-}$ or Fe (IV) = O species. Compound H could result from D through the removal of a carbonyl group, or be formed by further oxidation of G. Compounds I and J could originate from E by intramolecular cyclization and intramolecular attack, respec-

tively [65]. In addition, the mineralization of CBZ by PMS can be expressed by reaction (3) [66].

$$C_{15}H_{12}N_2O + 82HSO_5^- \rightarrow 15CO_2 + 47H_2O + 2NO_3^- + 82SO_4^{2-}(3)$$

According to reaction 3, 1 mol CBZ requires 82 mol PMS for complete mineralization. In our investigated condition, the complete mineralization of the added CBZ (25 μ M) will consume 2.05 mM PMS. As shown in Table S3, all intermediates remained after 40 min in the presence of 0.18 mM PMS. Considering the experimental conditions and mineralization, 0.18 mM PMS was added every 40 min. After 11 times intervals, when the total PMS addition was close to the amount of complete mineralization, all intermediates disappeared. In light of our preceding strategy for the determination of final products, GC–MS combined with HDMS was used, but no small molecular acids were detected. We infer that all the intermediates would be mineralized to CO2 and H2O with sufficient PMS.

4. Conclusion

In summary, a novel photocatalyst $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ was prepared to activate PMS for the rapid removal of refractory contaminants. The enhanced catalytic oxidation activity of $g-C_3N_4$ -INA-FePcCl $_{16}$ could be attributed to a perfect coordination interaction between functionalized $g-C_3N_4$ and FePcCl $_{16}$, which extended the spectral response region of $g-C_3N_4$ and improved the dispersibility of FePcCl $_{16}$, and benefited electron migration from

FePcCl₁₆ to g-C₃N₄. These advantages facilitated the effective formation of Fe (IV)=0, $SO_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\bullet OH$ species for CBZ removal. *FePcCl₁₆ was identified as key role in accelerating the generation of Fe (IV)=O. This mechanism was different from most reported PMS activation processes, where ${}^{\bullet}OH$ and $SO_4{}^{\bullet-}$ are recognized as the dominant active species. Furthermore, the g-C₃N₄-INA-FePcCl₁₆/PMS/visible light system exhibited a wide pH tolerance and good reusability. This work provides a new perspective for combining different catalysts via an axial coordination route, and provides a new photocatalytic system for the wastewater treatment, which is conducive to sustainable environmental development.

Author contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2017. 06.057.

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